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ABSTRACT

This monograph describes and compares the membership, organization, and policy-making responsibilities of state boards of education in the 49 states that have them. First, board members' characteristics, their civic activities, and their reasons for serving are discussed. Second, a total of 10 distinct governance models are identified, although 3 of these are applicable to 38 states and the District of Columbia. These models describe the selection and structure of state boards and their niches in state government. The final section discusses the various boards' procedures and their responsibilities in a number of policy areas, including academic standards, equal opportunity, finance, and school district organization. The report includes data tables and organizational diagrams. (MCG)

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**National Association
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STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION:

Quality Leadership

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STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION:

Quality Leadership

by Dinah Wiley



**National Association
of State Boards
of Education**

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Preface

September 15, 1983

This monograph was written because we believe it is timely to provide information about state boards of education. State board members are the lynchpin in the governance of an education system that will ensure an educated citizenry, productive workforce and secure nation. As primary education policymakers, they play a key role in shaping the knowledge, skills and attitudes of generations of America's youth. This publication allows the reader insights into who state board members are, how they make decisions and how they relate to other governmental bodies.

As lay leaders who volunteer considerable time and immeasurable energy, they are advocates for children. As key policymakers, they are poised on the cutting edge of efforts to improve quality in education. As citizens charged with the responsibility for education in their states, they feel the need to be visionary yet considered in their approaches to educational change. All board members are keenly aware of the impact of their decisions, for they account to the public. This publication attempts to describe the diversity inherent in the individuals and institutions that govern education. It demonstrates that, as John Stuart Mill said, "The work of a state, in the long run, is the work of the individuals comprising it."

We are deeply grateful to The Carl and Lily Pforzheimer Foundation for supporting this publication. Carl Pforzheimer is a highly esteemed state board member, having served as a member of the New York Board of Regents and President of the National Association of State Boards of Education.

Phyllis L. Blaunstein
Executive Director

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Foreword

Harold L. Hodgkinson

Former Director, National Institute of Education

In thinking about educational trends in the 1980's, we could hardly do better than to remind ourselves of Machiavelli's marvelous insight: "Weakness at the top drives power down."

For a decade, it was clear that the federal government was to be the major source of leadership and financial initiatives. Today, however, there is no consensus on what, if any, the federal role should be in educational matters. In this situation, as Machiavelli would confidently have predicted, power and leadership have moved to the states. At that level, we know a considerable amount about legislators and legislatures (not the same thing!) and chief state school officers are usually highly visible and well known. The same can be said for governors. But very little is known about state boards of education, usually even within the state in which they serve. And virtually nothing is known about the composite picture of how state boards of education work in all the states of the union.

This publication provides a very important service, in that for the first time we can get some understanding of the kinds of persons who serve on state boards of education, as well as the variety of structures within the states through which they serve. These structures determine, to some extent, the nature of the role of the board vis-a-vis the legislature, the governor, the chief state school officer. The role is a fascinating one, in that in every structure, state board members can be "second-guessed" by at least one other major player. For example, they are usually responsible for determining educational policy for the state, but so is the legislature, and often the legislature has final control over the budget, indicating once again the truth of the golden rule — he who has the gold makes the rule. On the other side, they are charged with carrying out policy, but that is clearly the province of the chief state school officer, who usually has a fairly large staff to do this work while the state board of education has an almost non-existent staff to carry out their wishes.

Lots of responsibility and limited areas in which to initiate new activity. That's not a very comfortable role, particularly for people who are not necessarily familiar with the vocabulary or politics of capital E Education. Yet, with more and more attention focussed on

Foreword

the state as the major source of new initiatives and leadership for public education, the state board of education will be in an increasingly pivotal position.

An awareness of who these board members are, how they work through their structures, and how effective they are, is vital to understanding the new dynamics that are emerging with the states. States and regions are becoming more dissimilar by age, racial composition, per capita wealth, and tax effort for education. Changed birthrates and patterns of migration have modified our country in major ways, as we move from manufacturing to services and information, from Frost Belt to Sun Belt, and so on. The state school board must look both inward to its own state, and outward to its region and nation, in order to be effective in the future. NASBE is an important organization to achieve this goal, and it is very appropriate that this ground-breaking publication should be developed by its staff. The next step is to begin learning about effective processes and dynamics that distinguish the effective state boards from the others. I look forward to future NASBE publications along this line, now that the base data has been developed.

State Boards of Education: Quality Leadership

Introduction

Throughout America's history, state governments have always taken primary responsibility for education. This tradition may have started in 1642 when the Massachusetts colony enacted its "Great Deluder Satan Law," requiring that all children be taught to read. Other colonies followed suit, and the drafters of the U.S. Constitution made no mention of education or schools, assuming by that time that education was now safe in the hands of state government. Yet a major concern of our founding fathers was how to educate citizens so they could develop a common culture and a national government. In his first annual presidential address to the Congress, George Washington exhorted the legislators to become education's patrons. Over time, the federal government enacted an abundance of education legislation to assure the "common defense" and "promote the general welfare" of the nation.

Public education developed unevenly but purposefully during the nineteenth century. In the early 1800s, the first citizen groups were organized on the state level for the purpose of administering public schools and these state boards of education soon became integral to the governance of education in America. State mandates became strengthened and enforced — providing not only for compulsory teaching, but also for school buildings, supervision, school attendance, and certification of teachers.

The present pattern of state educational organization, supervision and assistance is effectively the product of the twentieth century. The educational governance structures discussed in this publication — independent state boards of education, chief state school officers administering departments of education, and

Introduction

substantial state and federal aid to local school districts — evolved primarily after World War I. State board independence from direct political pressure and from the political rhythms of gubernatorial and legislative elections was firmly established. Boards moved ahead to overcome structural deficiencies which had previously hindered their development as institutions with clear and unequivocal duties and responsibilities.¹

Looking back from the perspective of the 1980s, it appears that state governance of education came of age only in the last two decades. Beginning in the mid-sixties, state policymakers brought their leadership skills to bear in meeting a dizzying array of policy challenges: desegregation, student rights and unrest, fiscal crises and school finance reform, declining enrollment, collective bargaining, accountability, competency testing, and a crisis of public confidence in the schools. Old coalitions of education interest groups disintegrated and new groups (Blacks, women, bilingual and handicapped students) joined the competition for limited resources. The courts became much more influential and state boards of education became more aggressive. Governors and legislators increased substantially their professional staffs, their involvement in education budgets, and their stands on the issues. State departments of education doubled and tripled in size as they began administering complex programs. Much of this growth came from major increases in federal aid and requirements.²

As if to gain strength for the changes about to occur, members of state boards of education from eleven states came together in 1959 to form the forerunner of the organization which is today the National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE). These education leaders recognized the crucial need for state boards, representing citizen control of public schools, to assume a central role in education leadership. They also realized that state board members could increase their voice in policymaking by learning from those in similar capacities throughout the United States. Today, the association is a progressive public force for education, while serving as a source of leadership and information. It seeks solutions to the educational challenges facing all levels of government in achieving quality education for all.

Today, in every US state and territory except one (Wisconsin), primary responsibility for the schools is vested in a state board of

Introduction

education. State boards are responsible for the education of nearly forty million students in public school and more than three million students in post-secondary institutions. State board members devote an average of ten to fifteen hours a week in the performance of their official duties and serve the public trust with little or no compensation. Men and women of varying ages and diverse personal and professional backgrounds join to work for the common goal of a well-educated citizenry.

Citizen control over education through the mechanism of lay governing boards is an enduring American tradition. State boards have always been regarded as critical to insuring the prominence of education as a state function. They have helped to protect the schools from the whims and pressures of any single group be they partisan politicians, education professionals, teacher unions or other special interests. The need for education to be guided by generalists is a view often most strongly promoted by education professionals themselves, as indicated by one former state superintendent of schools:

I don't think I'd want to be a chief state school officer without a board of education. I want it to be a lay board. I don't want it to be a bunch of professional educators sitting around . . . when you get two or three members of the board who are good lawyers, two or three bankers who know something about finance, and two or three just parents or just plain private business people, they come up with some pretty dab-blamed good ideas. Many times they've changed my mind about decisions that I had in the back of my head.³

The individuals who serve on state boards are marked by their diversity, as are the boards themselves as institutions. Some board members are elected, and others are appointed. Some are appointed by their governor, others by the state legislature. The size of boards ranges from the 6-member board in Oklahoma to the 24-member state board in Texas. Although all state boards are responsible for public elementary and secondary education, the scope of their authority varies according to the intra-state relationship among board, governor, legislature, and chief state school officer. In some states, boards have additional authority for colleges and universities, vocational education, and private schools.

Introduction

Preparation of this Report

The information presented in this document is derived from several recent reports that describe state boards of education. These reports focus on different elements of board operations — who serves, how boards are organized, how they operate, the power of state boards in educational policymaking. This summary highlights the findings of those reports. We shall describe demographic, leadership, and other background characteristics of board members, the organization and jurisdiction of state boards, and the power of boards in relation to other educational authorities in the state. The presentation of the data is interspersed with quotes from board members to add a personal flavor to the description.

Members of State Boards of Education

While state boards were originally dominated by white males, their composition has changed dramatically in the past two decades. As Figure 1 reveals, today they reflect the growing participation by women and minorities in public life and particularly in education policymaking. A full third of board members are women and 16 percent belong to minority racial and/or ethnic groups. A survey of board members conducted sixteen years ago revealed that only 18 percent were women and only 3 percent were non-White.⁴ This trend toward greater heterogeneity is important, widening the perspectives of board members and insuring that boards reflect a

Figure 1

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF STATE BOARD MEMBERS

Sex		Educational Level	
Male	66.4%	High school or less	0.6%
Female	33.6%	Some postsecondary education	9.0%
Age		College degree	33.6%
		Graduate degree	56.8%
		Race/Ethnic Background	
Under 20	0.6%	Caucasian	84.0%
20-39	11.8%	Black	10.0%
40-59	63.4%	Hispanic	2.8%
60 or older	24.2%	Native American	2.3%
Residence		Asian/Pacific Islander	0.6%
		Other	0.3%
Live in cities	47.0%		
(pop # 50,000)			
Do not live in cities	53.0%		

Members of State Boards of Education

wide range of social and educational concerns. Representative boards have the potential to be more issue-oriented, and to be more assertive in initiating change.

The voluntary nature of service on a state board means, however, that male or female, White or Black, the member must have the time, energy and resources to participate. As a result, board members tend to be older (88 percent are 40 or older), and well-educated. The educational level of board members is higher today than ever before. Currently, 99 percent have at least some post-secondary education, compared to 86 percent in 1967. 57 percent have a degree beyond the bachelor's. Most board members who are in the workforce describe their occupation as "managerial/administrative" or "professional" (see Figure 2), and those not in the paid workforce are either retired or homemakers with a history of substantial voluntary service.

Figure 2

PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF STATE BOARD MEMBERS

Occupation		Employment Status	
Clerical	0.6%	Self-employed	26.7%
Farmer	3.5%	Employed by others	47.2%
Homemaker	12.1%	Retired	11.0%
Manager/administrator	24.5%	Not in paid labor force	15.1%
Professional	49.0%		
Sales/service	5.5%		
Technical	1.2%	Time Spent in Employment	
Other	3.2%		
		Full-time	57.6%
		Part-time	7.4%
		Not employed	25.0%

Service on a state board of education is often a milestone in a career of voluntary public service. Referring to Figure 3, board members report high levels of current civic activity. Eighty-eight percent indicate that they participate in at least three other civic

Members of State Boards of Education

activities and over a third report that they are involved in nine or more! Participation may range from serving on the board of a voluntary organization in a local community to leadership in a state or federal commission. Many have served in other elected or appointed positions at the state level. A review of the resumes of current members of the NASBE Board of Directors reveals voluntary service with such disparate organizations as State Congress of Parents and Teachers, Delegate to State Republican or Democratic Convention, Chamber of Congress Education Committee, State Committee for the Humanities, State Advisory Council for Community Service, and the Governor's Advisory Board on Mental Health and Retardation. Public leadership through voluntary contribution of time and experience is a strong tradition among those who serve on state boards of education.

Figure 3
CIVIC LEADERSHIP
OF STATE BOARD MEMBERS

Number of Civic Activities	
1 or 2	12.0%
3 to 6	40.8%
7 or 8	13.6%
9 or more	33.9%

Some board members, though by no means the majority, are professional educators or have spent part of their careers in research, political, or other activities related to education. Even more have spent some portion of their voluntary hours as members and/or chairpersons of local boards of education. Their designation as "laypersons" clearly does not mean they are naive about the education system. Together, these activists share an abiding interest in public education and bring to state board service a sound understanding of critical issues for reform of the schools. Interestingly, although political party may play a role in initial appointment to a state board, members tend to be reappointed

Members of State Boards of Education

without regard to party membership — an indication that their commitment to education is recognized and rewarded by governors.

In response to the question, "why did you want to serve on the state board of education?" virtually all board members indicate an interest in furthering educational reform. This motivation is sometimes expressed as frustration with some general aspect of the status quo, such as inadequate funding of the public schools. For some, the state board is often the logical next step in a long career of educational policymaking. One board member characterizes this motivation as follows: "I had served on many education committees and task forces which only made recommendations. I thought it was time to serve on the board which actually makes the decisions." Others seek state board membership because of personal conviction and concern about a special interest such as educational equity.

State boards of education have been criticized for insufficient awareness of educational issues. Research conducted more than a decade ago asserted that members became interested in serving on the state board through the urging of friends or political leaders, rather than through their concerns over education issues. Interestingly, it was also asserted that this criticism was most true for appointed rather than elected boards.⁶ In interviews conducted for this report, only one board member indicated she first considered service on the state board of education when the governor asked her if she would accept the appointment. As boards become more representative by sex and race, they also appear to be attracting persons with more specific and well-differentiated educational goals.

The next section will explain the differences in formal educational governance and the role of the state board among the 50 states. It will also explore the implications of the different methods of selecting board members, i.e., elected or appointed, and by whom. The governance structures will also serve as a context for discussing board relationships with other actors in the state educational system.

Roles and Relationships of State Boards of Education

This section will describe different structures of educational governance in the 50 states. In all, ten distinct governance models are identified, although three of these are applicable to almost three-fourths of the states. The models describe how state boards of education and chief state school officers are selected. These selection methods influence the relationships among education officials, which include in addition to the board and the chief, the governor, state legislature and local school boards. For example, working contacts between the board and chief are affected by whether the chief is appointed by the board (true for 27 states), appointed by the governor (5 states) or elected by the people (18 states). Relationships among the key actors in education are also related to the distinct roles and responsibilities of each. These will be discussed in the subsections on different state structural models.

Some of the models identify yet another state official, the secretary of education, who serves in the governor's cabinet. Five states have a secretary in addition to a state board and a chief state school officer. In some states, the secretary is primarily a coordinator, in others, he or she has a more authoritative role, with the board and the chief subordinate in authority.

Model I

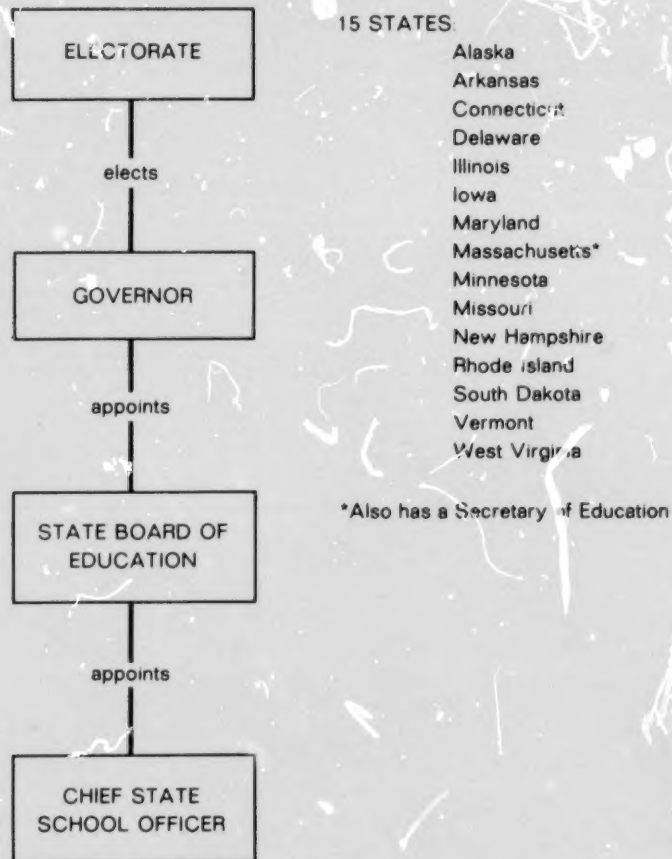
This model (Figure 4) illustrates the governance structure in 15 states, making it the most common model. Under Model I, the governor appoints the state board of education and the state board appoints the chief state school officer.⁷ The historical rationale for gubernatorial appointment of state boards is the preference for

Model I

centralized control of policymaking. Governor-appointed boards are viewed as a way of enhancing coordination and efficiency in the policymaking process. According to this view, governors must be granted a unified chain of command and authority commensurate with their responsibility, if they are to be truly accountable to the electorate.⁸

Figure 4

MODEL I. GOVERNOR APPOINTS BOARD BOARD APPOINTS CHIEF



Model I and Model II

Gubernatorial nominees to the state board undergo a "seconding" process in most states through confirmation by the senate, full legislature, or an advisory group. However, nominations are rarely contested. Once he or she appoints the board member, the governor's ability to influence state education policy through the appointee is limited. Board members are usually appointed for overlapping terms so that a governor appoints only a minority of the board at any one time. Further, board member's terms are generally longer than that of the governor who appoints them. Of these 15 states, only Minnesota and Rhode Island board members serve less than five years. Arkansas and West Virginia board members are appointed for nine years, Missouri has an eight-year term, and the remaining ten states provide for five- or six-year terms.

Many individuals and groups are influential in suggesting nominees to the governor. Aides prepare a list of potential candidates, and nominees are often suggested by members of the legislature, party officials outside the legislature, current state board members, the chief state school officer, and groups such as the state education association. The status of the office and the fact that the governor makes the appointment, however, encourages highly competent people to serve on the state board.

According to state board members, the appointment system is weakened if the governor fails to make "good, strong appointments" or to fill vacancies promptly. Some stress the need for boards to actively lobby governors as well as their aides for strong, early appointments. Appointed board members feel they have a closer relationship with their governor than they would if they were elected. They suggest there are more frequent discussions and correspondence on education matters. Most emphasize the fact that a governor's personal and professional commitment to education has great implications for educational policy. Because of the high visibility and the statewide influence of their office, governors can do much to either impede or promote quality education in the state.

Model II

Instead of being appointed by the governor, in Model II state board members are elected (see Figure 5), through partisan ballot in more than half of these states.⁹ The state board appoints the chief

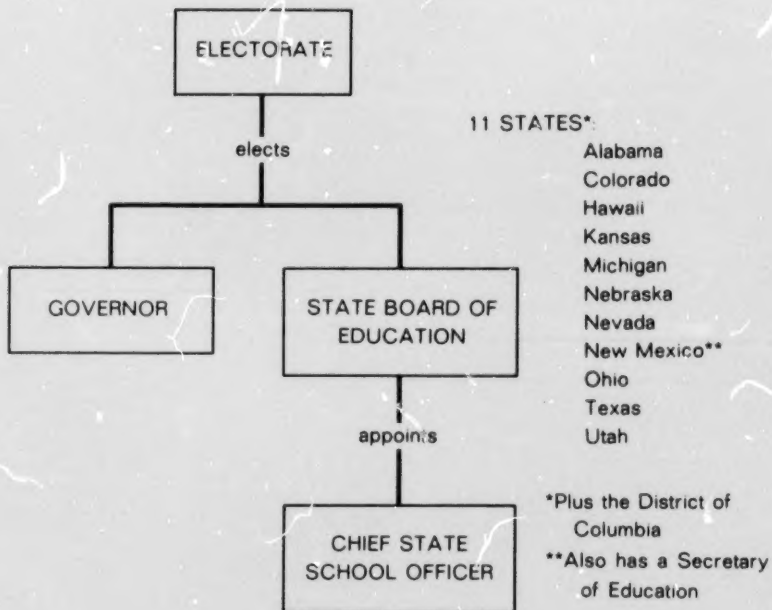
Model II

state school officer, an important relationship that will be discussed later in this section. Of the 11 states that operate within this structure, six provide for four-year terms for their board members. In four additional states, the elected term is six years, and in the remaining state, North Carolina, board members serve for eight years. In all of these states except Texas, the chief serves at the pleasure of the board rather than for a specified term.

Though Models I and II both clearly establish separate governance structures for education, the latter model is a more populist approach. Even though most state board campaigns are somewhat limited compared to those of other state officials, board members feel that being elected enhances their relationships with the

Figure 5

MODEL II: ELECTED BOARD/ BOARD APPOINTS CHIEF



Model II

governor and the legislature because, as one member stated, "we have all been through the campaign process." Elected board members value elections as a way "to talk with people about their views on education and how their ideas correspond to our policy goals." Previous research has indicated that elected board members tend to define those goals more specifically than do members of appointed boards.¹⁰ The election process promotes discussion of issues, personal points of view, and an interest in establishing and maintaining a public position in keeping with those views. In addition to the 11 states in Model II, 8 additional states (Models IV, V and VII) provide for statewide board elections; in the state of Washington (Model X), state boards of education are elected by local school board members.

In Model II, the state board's relationships with the chief state school officer (CSSO) may be characterized as the relationship between a board of directors and the chief executive officer of an organization. The chief (who is usually called the State Superintendent of Schools or the Commissioner of Education) is the highest administrative officer of the state's public education system. He or she heads the state department of education and is responsible for carrying out the policies of the board through the activities of the department. The chief supervises and manages the expenditure of all state and federal public school funds. A number of state legislatures have enacted laws authorizing the CSSO to recommend to the state board policies and rules and a proposed budget for operating the state department of education. While designations such as "executive secretary" and "chief executive officer" are used in the laws of most states to denote the chief's relationship to the board, legislation rarely enumerates the powers and duties of these officers. Since state boards usually are authorized to govern their own internal affairs, board rules and regulations frequently dictate the way in which the CSSO relates to the board.¹¹

States which enjoy a smooth-functioning process of education policymaking and administration are states in which the board and chief work well together from positions of mutual respect. A member from one state board contrasted this close coordination to a relationship characterized by cross-purposes. "We are far ahead of where we were ten years ago," she said, "when the board issued rules and regulations but the chief and his department did not see

Model II and Model III

them through." In theory, the state board sets policy and the chief administers it. But the reality is considerably more fluid.

In all honesty the line between a policy decision and an administrative decision is blurry in some areas. For example, if we make a policy decision, we rarely follow up to see that staff is implementing that decision as we want them to. That is the responsibility of the chief, and in the course of carrying out this responsibility the chief can determine the level and nature of acceptable implementation.

Board members and chiefs seem to agree that access to information is a key to a strong policymaking board and to an effective working relationship. Chiefs may play a critical role in providing or controlling access. The CSSO is a full-time executive in charge of a sizeable professional staff working in the state capital. The average board meets monthly, its members live throughout the state, and it has little, if any, staff.

Twenty-seven state boards (Models I, II and VIII) have authority to appoint the chief state school officer. State board members in all states, however, tend to advocate this authority. As one Model II board member notes, this system "holds the superintendent accountable to the board and promotes a greater responsiveness to our policy role." Other members have noted that chiefs who are appointed may be selected from a larger field of qualified candidates. Appointed chiefs are often chosen on the basis of a nationwide search; those who run in statewide elections are usually residents of that state. Model II board members feel that state board appointment¹² promotes the incumbency of stronger, more capable administrators to the post of chief state school officer.

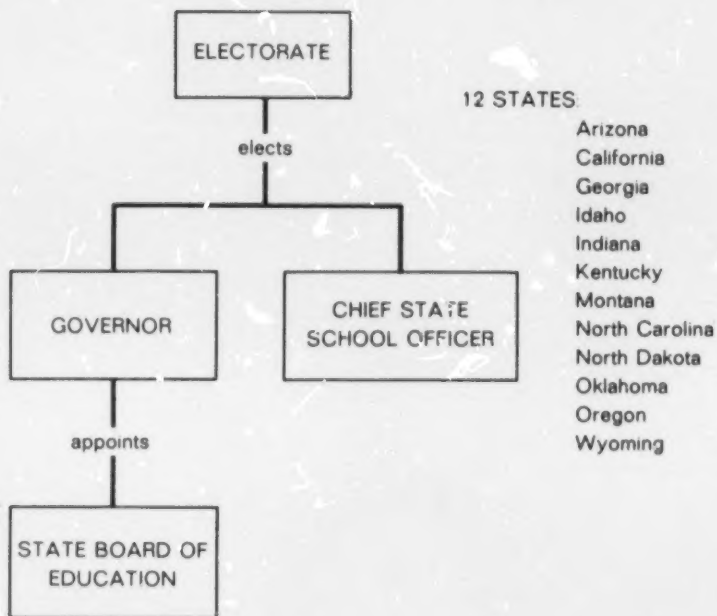
Model III

In the 26 states for which Models I and II apply the chief is appointed by the board so that, formally, the administration of the school system flows from the board down. The structure depicted by Model III (Figure 6) is significantly different. In these 12 states, the chief is elected, usually by partisan ballot and almost always for a four-year term. The state board members, on the other hand, are appointed by the governor, most often to staggered terms of five or more years. In most of these states, it is not unusual for both the

Model III

Figure 6

MODEL III: APPOINTED BOARD/ELECTED CHIEF



governor and the chief to be elected at the same time for terms of equal length. Both have some formal and legal responsibility over education and both must work with a board to which the majority of members were appointed by the previous governor or governors.

On the surface at least, Model III states seem to have established distinct, dual sources of educational leadership in the state: the elected chief and the board appointed by the governor. Problems can arise out of this "dual system." Board members in these states note that blame for ills in the state education system are often bounced back and forth between the governor and "his" board, and the chief. Many board members appointed in these states favor an elected board which then would appoint the chief. Those who favor

Model III and Model IV

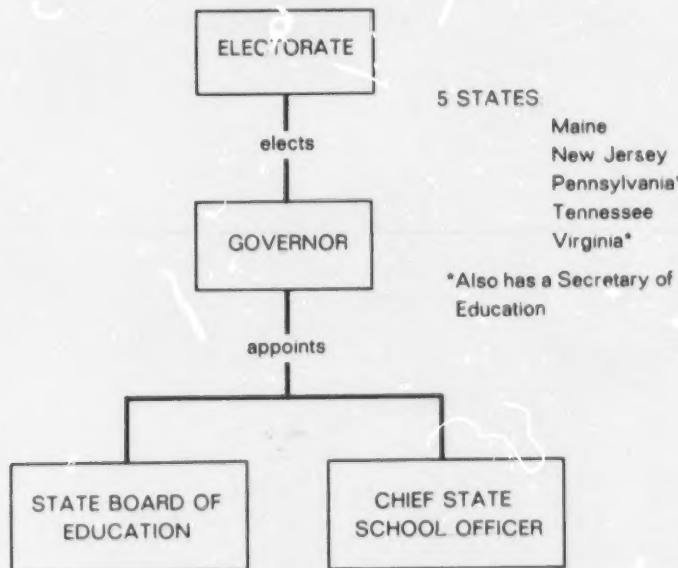
an elected chief, however, maintain that the chief is more responsive to constituents' needs and priorities, and that the status of an elected official affords the chief greater credibility in promoting board policies to the governor and legislature.

Models IV — X

Thirty-eight of the fifty states have educational governance structures represented by one of the three previous models. The five states for which Model IV applies (Figure 7) are related in structure to the previous 38 but their structure is a relatively recent approach to education governance. In this model the governor appoints both board members and the chief. In two states, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, the chief's term is longer than the governor's, and in all of these states except Virginia, the board members are appointed for terms of five years or longer. These extended terms for board members and the chief limit what would otherwise be considerable political control of

Figure 7

MODEL IV: APPOINTED BOARD AND CHIEF



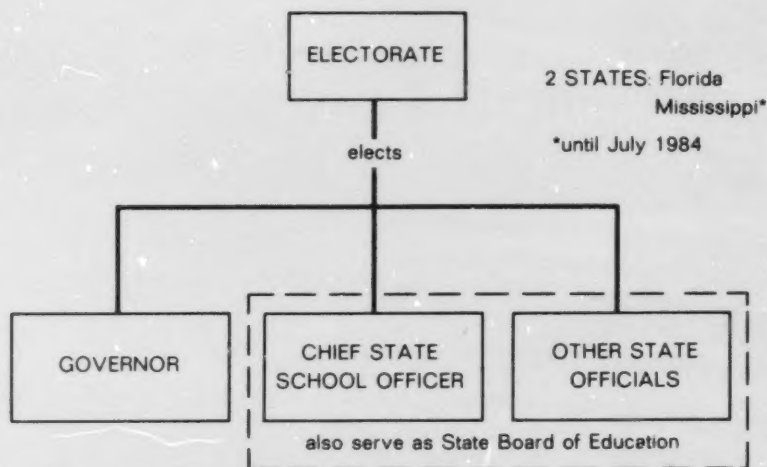
Model IV and Model V

education governance. In three of the states — Maine, Tennessee and Virginia — the chief serves at the governor's pleasure, establishing more gubernatorial authority over the education system.

The remaining seven states operate under six governance structures that differ markedly from the above four models. In Florida (Model V, Figure 8), the state board of education is composed of members of the governor's cabinet, including the chief state school officer. Mississippi also operates under this system, but the voters have approved a new system that will take effect in July 1984: a nine-member board of education with authority to appoint the chief state school officer. Mississippi's new method for selecting board members will be unique. Five members will be appointed by the governor, two will be named by the lieutenant governor, and two by the speaker of the House of Representatives.

Figure 8

MODEL V: STATE OFFICIALS



Wisconsin (Model VI, Figure 9), the only state with no board of elementary and secondary education, does have a state board for

Model VI and Model VII

vocational education. As illustrated by Model VII (Figure 10), the Louisiana state board is composed of eight elected and three governor-appointed members, and the chief is elected. In both New

Figure 9

MODEL VI: NO STATE BOARD

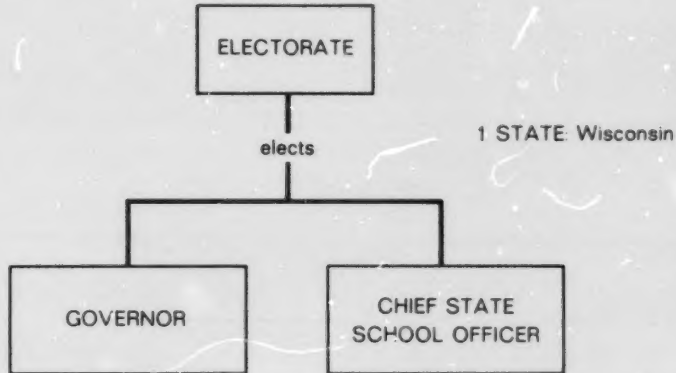
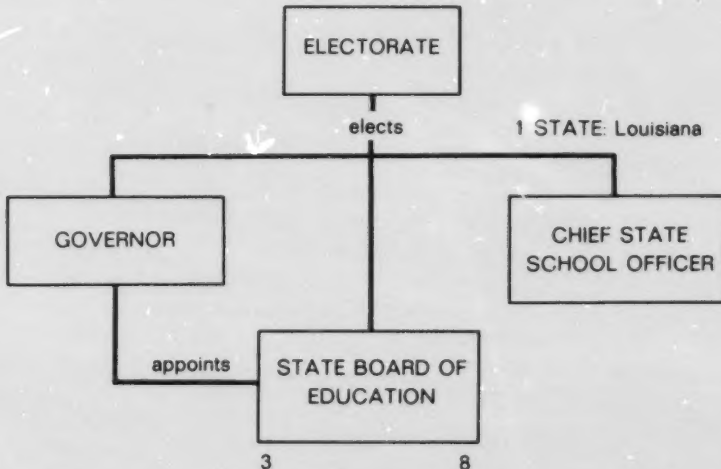


Figure 10

MODEL VII: MIXED STATE BOARD



Model VIII and Model IX

York and South Carolina, board members are appointed by the state legislature. These states are depicted as two different models because in New York (Model VIII, Figure 11), the board appoints the chief state school officer, and in South Carolina (Model IX, Figure 12), the chief is elected.

Figure 11

MODEL VIII: LEGISLATURE APPOINTS BOARD — BOARD APPOINTS CHIEF

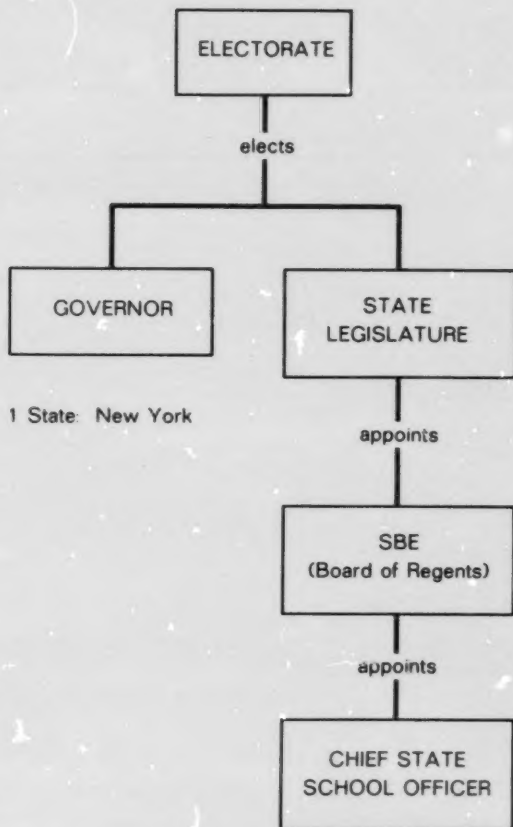
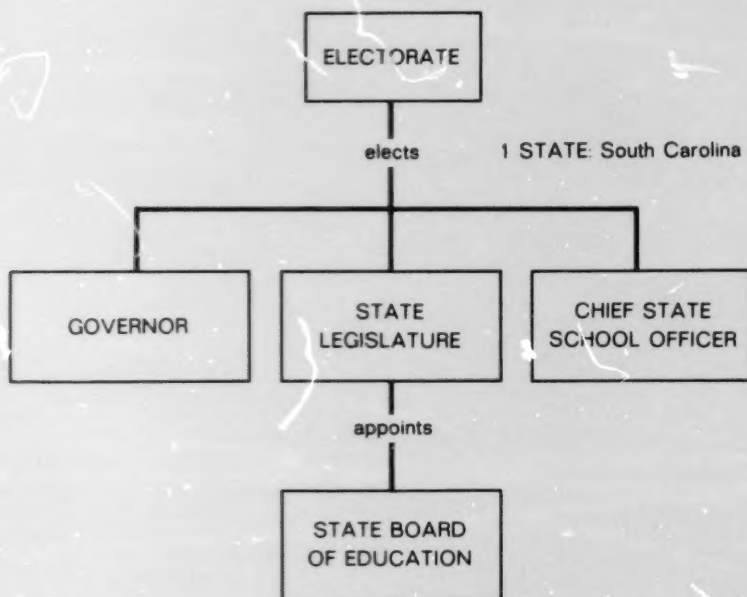


Figure 12

MODEL IX: LEGISLATURE APPOINTS BOARD — ELECTED CHIEF



Though appointment of state board members by the legislature constitutes a particularly direct tie between these two governmental bodies, boards and legislatures in all states must work closely together. Because both have responsibilities for education policy and opportunities to take a leadership role, their relationship merits explication. Legally, legislators enact the laws of the state, yet most state boards are authorized to undertake judicial and quasi-legislative functions as well. Fiscal responsibility rests with the legislature and the governor, but the board and the chief are active in making recommendations regarding the education budget. In addition to determining funding, legislatures can and often do pass laws on a wide spectrum of non-fiscal education policies. Boards can guide the chief state school officer and the local districts by enacting whatever

Model IX

rules are needed to supplement policies prescribed by the legislature.

Legislative initiatives usually provide the board outlines for policy. These communicate intent and authorize some funding. In such instances, it is up to the state board to set forth specific policy definitions as well as applications such as standards, evaluation criteria and administrative procedures. Sometimes it is the state board that initiates a policy that is ultimately enacted by the legislature. Board members work directly with key legislators to see that those portions of the policy that require legislation are enacted and then the board prescribes enabling rules.

Education has become a higher priority of state government. It is the often difficult task of state board members to ensure that school issues top the legislative agenda but that the authority of the board is not usurped. Since the 1960s, state legislatures have doubled or tripled their education staffs, building a large information-gathering capacity. As one board member bluntly observed:

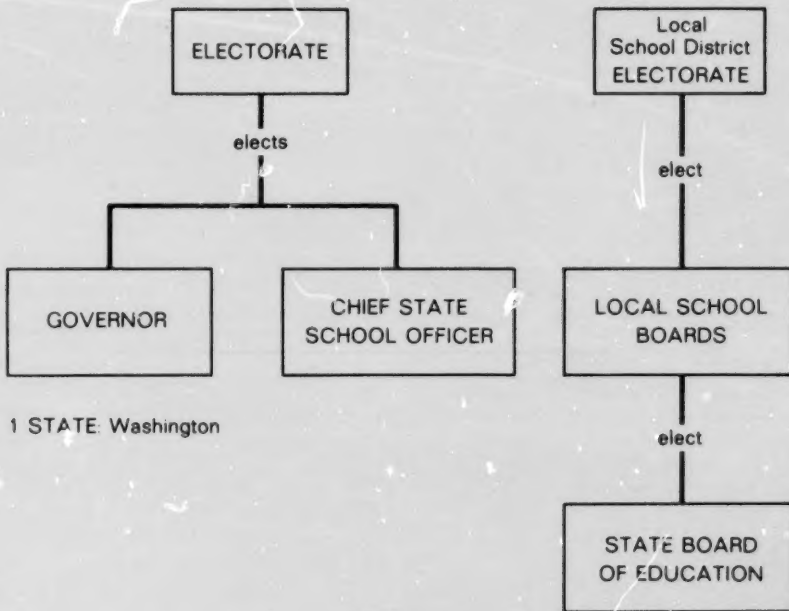
I think so far as the relationships within state government go, our most important work is with our General Assembly because they keep trying to take more prerogatives away from the board. I spend a lot of time with legislators. I find that our image is not always what we perceive it to be; that we're not always conveying the messages that we intend to. It's important to give legislators an opportunity to lay out the problems as they see them and then to give them some answers and commitments. Once we get to know each other better, they discover that the state board is there for only one reason and that is for the best education possible. They realize that we have a common goal.

Popularly-elected state boards of education enjoy an added degree of independence in their relationships with state legislatures. In all states, however, boards are dependent on the legislature to fund both their own operations as well as the state education plan.

With the presentation of Model X (Figure 13), another unique governance structure is depicted. In the state of Washington, the board of education is elected by local school board members, and the chief is elected at-large. This model highlights another level of government to which boards of education in every state are closely

Figure 13

MODEL X: LOCAL SCHOOL BOARDS ELECT STATE BOARD



linked: the local school district. Local districts are responsible for operating the schools within the legal framework of the state constitution and statutes, and the policies and regulations of the state board. Local officials set curriculum requirements for their districts, respond to community concerns, provide local financial support, and manage and evaluate school practices.

These substantive responsibilities are expressions of a tradition of "local control" over public schools. This tradition creates what one writer has called a "highly useful tension" between state and local authority, a kind of ongoing check-and-balance as educational priorities change and grow. State strategies to promote local quality improvement may take the form of regulation at one end of the continuum and technical assistance at the other. Enacting regulations or mandates alone is anathema to many state board members.

Model X

especially those from states in which local control traditions are strong. The tension between the desire to improve education and the reluctance to mandate is apparent in the views of one board member:

Philosophically, I believe that program standards should be set by local districts and to mandate them is to destroy the idea of local control that has always been traditional in our state. At the same time, I am upset about the educational crisis in this country, particularly since I teach at the college level. Writing is a basic skill that everyone should have and perhaps the schools should be doing more. There ought to be a state requirement for basic competency in writing.

The most effective state efforts tend to be a mix of regulation and assistance. The board uses a mandate to direct local attention to a problem area, then instructs the state education agency to provide technical assistance and resources to help local districts respond.

Our competency-based program was developed and mandated by the state board, but our biggest accomplishment was in getting this program fully implemented at the local level. Something like this takes many years and I am most encouraged when I see what is a state project being interpreted as a county-wide competency-based education program. Then it's "owned" by the local school board.

Though local control often provides a philosophical rationale for a state's emphasis on assistance to local districts, it is also the most practical alternative to ensuring the enforcement of state mandates. Barring the involvement of the courts, the major sanction of the board is the withholding of state funds from districts that do not comply with program mandates. This sanction is very rarely used because it results in a denial of resources to districts that need them and because there is little political support for such action.

Summary of Governance Models

Figure 14 summarizes the ten governance models by depicting all fifty states on one chart, organized according to the method of selection of both the board and the chief state school officer. It also lists the number of members who serve on each state board, in

Summary of Governance Models

Figure 14
STAT. BOARDS OF EDUCATION:
NUMBER OF MEMBERS, LENGTH OF TERM, AND
METHOD OF SELECTION, BY METHOD OF SELECTION OF
CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICER

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION								
		Appointed by the Governor		Elected		Elected Officials Including Chief		
		No	Term	No	Term		No	Term
CHIEF APPOINTED BY STATE BOARD	Model I			Model II				
	AK	7	5	AI	8	4		
	AR	9	9	CO	7	4		
	CT	9	6	HI	11	4		
	DE	7	6	KS	10	4		
	IL	17	6	MI	8	8		
	IA	9	6	NE	8	8		
	MD	7	5	NV	9	4		
	MA	11	5	NM	10	6		
	MN	9	4	OH	21	6		
	MO	8	8	TX	24	6		
	NH	7	5	UT	9	4		
	RI	9	4					
	SD	7	5					
	VT	7	6					
	WV	9	9					
CHIEF ELECTED	Model III					Model V		
	AZ	8	4			FL	7	4
	CA	10	4			MS	3	4
	GA	10	7					
	ID	7	5					
	IN	18	4					
	KY	7	4					
	MT	7	7					
	NC	11	8					
	ND	7	6					
	OK	6	6					
	OR	7	7					
	WY	9	6					
	Model VII			Model VII				
	LA (3 mem)	3	6	LA (8 mem)	8	6		
CHIEF APPOINTED BY GOVERNOR	Model IV							
	ME	9	5					
	NJ	12	6					
	PA	17	6					
	TN	12	9					
	VA	9	4					

Summary of Governance Models

Figure 14 (Continued)
STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION:
NUMBER OF MEMBERS, LENGTH OF TERM, AND
METHOD OF SELECTION, BY METHOD OF SELECTION OF
CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICER

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION							
	Appointed by the Legislature			Elected by Local School Boards			No State Board
		No	Term		No	Term	
CHIEF APPOINTED BY STATE BOARD	Model VIII NY	16	7	Model X WA	14	6	
CHIEF ELECTED	Model IX SC	16	4				Model VI WI
CHIEF APPOINTED BY GOVERNOR							

addition to the terms of office provided for by each state. A word of caution is in order regarding the discussion in the preceding section: any of the assumptions made about the effectiveness of different governance structures may not hold true in a particular state. The groupings mask differences within states regarding the powers and responsibilities of the board, the length of the term of appointment or election, the number of members on the board, and other potentially important variables. The most vital factor of all may be the hard work and devotion to quality education demonstrated by those who play a governance role in any state at any given time. As one board member notes

There are so many different systems across the country and any system that works well is the best system. To me, it is the people inside the system who cause most of the problems or who solve them. Whether an individual serves on the board, in the state Capitol or at the department of education, the

Summary of Governance Models

school children of the state are relying on the dedication of all of us to do what's best for education.

State governance structures have served as a useful context for discussing certain key relationships of a state board of education. Parameters of the interaction of the board and the governor, chief state school officer, state legislature and local districts have all been described. In addition, the state board plays a role in implementing programs mandated by the federal government, and this will be discussed as part of state board finance activities in the final section of this report. Members interact routinely with professional and parent associations, teachers, labor unions, business organizations, and other special interest groups. Thus, in working to fulfill all its responsibilities, a state board rarely works alone. State governance patterns are rooted in tradition and political science theory, however, roles and relationships continually adjust to changes in personnel and in public priorities.

Policymaking Responsibilities of State Boards of Education

This section is a discussion of how state boards operate, as well as the issues they address. State boards apply a step-by-step policy development process to all of the issue areas they consider. Rule- or policy-making involves setting goals, gathering information, refining policy drafts, and monitoring and evaluating activities. All boards develop statewide policies and regulations in areas such as standards for education quality, equal access to education, organization of local school districts, and finance. Boards in many but not all states have additional responsibilities for vocational education and rehabilitation, colleges and universities, private schools, adult education, textbooks and educational television. These functions and responsibilities of boards will be discussed in this section.

The Policymaking Process

Policymaking is the major function of state boards of education. Activities such as budget and legislative consultation, information-gathering and evaluation relate either directly or indirectly to the process of creating sound policies to govern school practice. Board rules and mandates affect the education of thousands of students in individual states and are often catalysts for national reform. State boards are continually evolving more careful and comprehensive processes to fulfill their public trust.

Policy development begins with a need that is acknowledged by the board as a whole and then translated into a goal. In work sessions, the board arrives at its goal or goals by considering factors such as

The Policymaking Process

who will be affected by the change, how they will be affected, when and how the policy will be implemented, and the possible limitations posed by political, fiscal or program considerations. The board concludes this stage of the process with a working statement of its policy goals and objectives that includes how and when it plans to achieve them.

At this point, the board assumes an information-gathering role. As stated in the previous section, access to information is a key to developing effective policies. The board may decide to commission a review of existing research, a description of the current status of the issue, or a summary of relevant policy activities in other states. Because boards usually meet only monthly — returning to jobs, family and other civic responsibilities in the interim — keeping informed about education issues on an ongoing basis always presents a challenge. As one board member characterizes the problem:

We are not at the state department of education eight hours a day, five days a week. We do not all even live in the capital, there is a distance problem. So we often do not get the information that we think we should, and often we don't know what information is available. I've been lucky because I live near the state university; there is a school of education there that is always feeding me information. NASBE, of course, keeps us up-to-date on a lot of issues.

In recent years, state boards have established more and more mechanisms to encourage input from public and professional constituents. Most boards hold public hearings with advance publication of the agenda. They solicit written comments, and invite association representatives to state board meetings. What one member described as "a multitude" of advisory committees are established by the board to increase public participation. A few state boards hold meetings at regional locations. Different information-gathering activities are implemented at various stages in drafting policy statements.

The board produces a succession of written drafts of the policy leading to preparation and adoption of the final statement. Refinement of the policy includes revisions in the stated rationales and goals, as well as plans for implementation and evaluation. Constituent

The Policymaking Process

reactions are projected. Federal and state laws may be reviewed, specific budget data may be requested.

Once the state board has adopted a final policy statement, it assumes an oversight role. The board must monitor and evaluate implementation of the policy with an eye toward possible revisions. In the case of mandates, compliance must be assured. Implementation is delegated to the state department of education under the direction of the chief state school officer. Through progress reports, the board evaluates and re-evaluates the impact of its mandates. Once fully implemented, policies are periodically reviewed. Rules often need to be updated or otherwise revised. This need may trigger a re-initiation of the entire policy development process or only some of its stages.

The oversight responsibility of state boards sometimes requires them to perform a quasi-judicial function. This role varies according to board procedures in different states, and the nature of each case. Some cases involve formal testimony and cross-examination, others require a less formal hearing. Often, the board hears appeals from parents, school personnel, or local districts on the one side, and the recommendations of the state department of education on the other side, and then issues a ruling. In other cases, the department of education may represent the stand of a local school board against a teacher or parent. Issues brought before the board may concern the certification of a teacher or administrator, the closing of a school, or the placement of a special education student. In this role, the state board of education is acting as an appeal board, an intermediate step between local due process procedures and the filing of a civil court grievance. Boards are granted this authority as the protectors of education in the state.

The foregoing description of the way in which state boards operate is, of course, simplified. In reality, all of these functions are performed simultaneously, with different policies at various stages of development. Some issues require close cooperation with the state legislature, others may require special efforts to coordinate with the budget cycle. State boards are sometimes required to advise the courts on policy intent, or to consult with them in defense of policies or their implementation. Boards are often responsible for recruitment and hiring of key personnel at the state education agency, for which they use a specific set of procedures. Internal administrative operations require different processes, some boards, for example,

Standards for Academic Quality

have independent staff and budget.¹³ Despite these other activities, state board meetings are devoted primarily to developing policies for the issues that lie within their legal jurisdiction. The remainder of this section will outline these areas of responsibility.

Standards for Academic Quality

The broad area of educational standards includes policies that state boards may adopt to ensure academic rigor, strengthen the curriculum, or assure that teachers are qualified. Academic and personnel standards are among the most important and far-reaching responsibilities of state boards and accordingly are a major focus of board activities. Academic achievement is affected by the standards set for instruction, for evaluating student performance, for textbooks, and for high school graduation. Boards establish the broad rules that govern practice at the local level.

Perhaps more than any other area of responsibility, academic standards are continually reappraised and revised. As a result, these requirements are upgraded on a virtually continuous basis. In recent history, major academic reforms have been carried out in response to the rapid pace of societal change. For example, math and science curricula were upgraded during the era of Sputnik, revised again for the basic competency programs of the seventies, and are receiving new emphasis as boards develop standards for excellence and cope with teacher shortages in math and science. From time to time, state boards must tackle whole new areas of instruction such as drug and alcohol education or computer education. High school graduation requirements are again being raised across the country through a variety of strategies: performance measures, increased unit requirements and differentiated diplomas.

Personnel standards is another area that is scrutinized by state boards. In seeking to raise the quality of the teaching force, boards have emphasized standards for teacher certification — the objective criteria used for selecting entering teachers. State boards consider a broad spectrum of alternatives such as internships prior to certification or aptitude tests prior to entering college. In addition, various incentive programs and other quality measures for teachers are debated including master teacher systems, differentiating ranks, pay and responsibilities, and merit pay strategies that link salaries to

Standards for Academic Quality and Educational Equity

demonstrated competence. Some of these alternatives have encountered resistance from groups such as teacher unions and teachers' colleges. Board members are sensitive to the difficulties of change and the problems reform may raise.

We really have a monumental job to do this year in working with the teacher training institutions. We are asking them to upgrade their admissions standards at a time when colleges are being hit by declining enrollments and are mounting campaigns to attract as many new students as possible.

Other areas of personnel standards which boards consider include those for hiring and promoting guidance counselors, special education teachers, speech therapists and other professional staff. Boards are also concerned with increasing the effectiveness of school principals and upgrading qualifications for other administrators.

Standards for Educational Equity

State boards of education are responsible for setting standards to assure that all students have equal access to a quality education and due process under the law. The civil rights movement that began in the nineteen fifties focused attention on educational equity and set an example for many groups who encounter discrimination. In response, state boards have enacted policies to increase the participation of girls and women in athletic programs and to assure equal opportunity in the hiring and promotion of women teachers and administrators. Sweeping changes have been mandated to ensure the rights of handicapped students to a free education that meets their individual needs. Boards in different states have enacted an array of programs designed to meet the special needs of children who are gifted in academics, athletics or the arts. Bilingual education and other concerns of Hispanics are considered by state boards as they set standards for curricula and teacher certification.

All standards set by state boards are influenced by equity issues. For example, boards must assure that student performance is not evaluated on the basis of tests that are culturally biased. In recent years, concern for equity has cut across two additional areas of state board standard-setting: transportation and facilities. The authority to

Educational Equity and Finance

set standards for the transportation of pupils figured significantly in policies for interdistrict busing designed to promote racial integration. State board responsibility for the standards of school facilities has played a part in increasing the access of handicapped students to all areas of the educational program. One board member describes the statewide ramifications of her personal commitment to education for the handicapped:

At the time I was first elected twelve years ago, there was no mandatory special education in the state and very little funding. I ran for election to the board with a deep concern for special education. My expectations certainly have been fulfilled. Shortly after I got on the board, we formed a committee that went through all the state statutes regarding special education. And we put into place in our state — even before the federal law was signed — statutes and regulations that achieve as much as the federal law, with funding support from the legislature.

State boards must also establish standards assuring due process. In the case of special education these include procedures for individualized education plans, for administrative hearings and appeal processes, and for other mechanisms to resolve disputes between individuals and the schools.

Finance

Boards are commonly required to make recommendations to the governor and legislature regarding the financial needs of the public schools and the state education agency. Boards in some states play a major role in identifying the needs of the local districts and advocating those needs to the legislature. Basic school funding as well as funding for special programs is an issue that pervades all others with which state boards are concerned. Though they can only influence the governor and legislature to increase school funding or, as one member put it, to "try to keep the good programs from getting cut," boards assume this responsibility with a significant investment of time and energy. As another member characterized this commitment

We cannot accomplish a lot these days without dollars. State board members must have a good understanding of the

Finance, Organization of Local Districts, and Additional Responsibilities

budget and how programs get funded. It's time-consuming, but when you are negotiating for money with the state legislature you have to be knowledgeable.

State boards administer foundation aid and federal programs of financial assistance to the schools. In the last twenty years the federal government has increased its influence over state governance of education through grants-in-aid and regulation. To administer federal financial assistance, states must meet many monitoring and reporting requirements. State board leaders, often working through NASBE, undertake liaison activities with members of the Congress and the administration to help ensure the best use of the federal government's contribution to education: a wide financial base, willingness to tackle equity issues across states, and the responsibility to address national interests.

Organization of Local Districts

One final area for which all state boards of education are responsible is the establishment of local school districts. Reorganizations occur frequently, necessitated by demographic shifts that change public school enrollments. Districts with declining or racially unbalanced enrollments are consolidated or otherwise linked with other districts to increase financial and administrative efficiency or to promote statewide equity. Boards must be sensitive to the ways in which actions to change local organization affect finance, equity and quality considerations. Reorganization efforts may encounter resistance from unions, local administrators, parents, and other community groups. The benefits the board seeks must usually be weighed against the potential for disruption of students' education and community organization.

Additional Responsibilities

Beyond these common areas of K-12 jurisdiction, the powers of most boards expand to other educational arenas as well. Figure 15 provides a glimpse of the additional responsibilities granted to different state boards. Almost every state board has authority over adult education. Many states also assign textbook review and

Additional Responsibilities

Figure 15
ADDITIONAL POLICYMAKING RESPONSIBILITIES OF
STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION

State	Vocational Rehabilitation	Vocational Education	Adult Education	Educational TV	Textbooks	HIGHER EDUCATION	
						4-Year	2-Year
AL	X	X	X	X	X		X
AK	X	X	X	X			
AZ	X		X		X		
AR		X	X	X			
CA		X	X	X	X		
CO			X				
CT	X	X	X	X			
DE		X	X		X		
FL		X	X	X	X		
GA		X	X	X	X		
HI	X	X	X		X		
ID	X	X	X	X	X	X	
IL	X	X	X	X	X		
IN			X	X	X		
IA	X	X	X				X
KS		X	X				X
KY	X	X	X		X		
LA		X	X		X		X
ME		X					
MD	X	X	X	X			
MA	X	X	X	X			
MI	X	X	X	X			
MN		X	X	X			
MS	X	X	X			X	
MO	X	X	X	X			
MT							
NE	X	X	X	X			
NV		X	X		X		
NH	X	X	X				
NJ		X	X				
NM	X	X	X		X		
NY	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
NC		X	X		X		
ND			X		X		
OH		X	X	X	X		
OK			X	X	X		
OR		X	X		X		X
PA		X	X	X		X	X
RI		X	X		X		
SC		X	X		X		
SD			X				
TN	X	X		X			
TX		X	X	X	X		
UT	X	X	X	X	X		
VT		X	X				
VA			X		X		
WA			X				
WV		X	X		X		
WI							
WY		X					

Additional Responsibilities

Figure 15 (Continued)
**ADDITIONAL POLICYMAKING RESPONSIBILITIES OF
 STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION**

State	PRIVATE EDUCATION				
	Teacher Certification	Graduation Requirements	Curriculum/ Textbooks	Health/ Safety	Athletic Programs
AL					
AK				X	
AZ					
AR					
CA			X		
CO					
CT					
DE					
FL					
GA					
HI		X	X	X	X
ID					
IL	X	X	X	X	X
IN					
IA	X				
KS					
KY					
LA	X	X	X	X	
ME	X				
MD					
MA					
MI	X		X	X	
MN					
MS					
MO					
MT					
NE	X			X	
NV		X			
NH				X	
NJ					
NM					
NY		X	X	X	X
NC					
ND	X	X	X	X	
OH	X	X	X	X	
OK					
OR					
PA		X	X	X	X
RI					
SC					
SD					
TN					
TX					
UT	X	X	X	X	X
VT	X	X	X	X	
VA					
WA					
WV	X	X	X	X	X
WI					
WY					

Additional Responsibilities

vocational rehabilitation to their boards. Educational television is the responsibility of boards in about half the states; many members predict increasing state board activity in new technologies.

One issue that will be more important in the future is what delivery system is going to be most prevalent. I would expect that within the next three to five years we are going to see more education at home through the advent of computer software and the initiation of computers in the schools. Our policies will have to reflect that trend.

In four states (Idaho, Mississippi, New York and Pennsylvania), boards have substantial authority over four-year colleges and universities; in other states, authority extends to the junior colleges only. State boards without this authority are still responsible for liaison with a separate board established for higher education. Most state boards have jurisdiction over some private school functions such as teacher certification or health and safety, and primary responsibility over private schools is a major duty for the boards of seven states. Even state boards that do not have broad authority for private schools must grapple with private education issues when they conflict with state education policies.

A major task for every state is to administer federal as well as state funds for vocational education. Federal support in this area of education dates back to the Smith Hughes Act of 1917. The current federal law requires state boards and/or special state councils to be responsible for receiving, planning, and distributing federal funds earmarked for vocational education. Although most states now fund these programs far in excess of the federal government's share, any state that seeks federal monies must designate a "sole state agency" responsible for administering the programs. A separate state board for vocational education has been established in nine states.¹⁴ In the majority of states, however, the state board of education also serves as the state board for vocational education. Despite the additional responsibilities borne by these boards, members generally prefer to integrate vocational education into the general education program. This is because many board members regard the coordination of all statewide education activities as one of their major goals. As one board member noted, "We have to unify that voice for education. We can be the agent to get higher education and vocational education

Additional Responsibilities

and all of the various groups working together instead of at cross-purposes."

The foregoing discussion has outlined responsibilities common to boards of education in all 50 states as well as additional authorities granted to some state boards. The diversity and sheer volume of tasks presents a leadership challenge to state boards, and members sometimes feel the task is endless.

One of the hardest things to accomplish is to be proactive rather than reactive. The meeting agendas are so crowded . . . there are so many things happening. We are constantly having to put out brush fires that keep us from concentrating on the future. Each state ought to be doing comprehensive planning on a three-to-five year cycle. We ought to be looking at exactly what the needs are in our education system, where the growth will be, as well as the critical areas that are lacking.

The pace of educational reform appears at times to be slow. Yet seasoned board members have a tolerant perspective toward the process of gradual change. Most of those who have served two terms or more have seen outstanding programmatic reforms evolve over a period of many years. They tend to believe that their board's most lasting accomplishments are the ones that have been achieved incrementally. Good, sound programs, they say, are relatively invulnerable, at least for a while.

Conclusion

The preceding sections have emphasized the context within which state boards of education operate. It has been shown how the boards' formal ties with other official entities form the basic fabric of educational governance in the 50 states. Individual board members' comments add examples of how these relationships operate to bring about changes in education. These remarks reveal that the pace and nature of change is affected by personal relationships and interests. Trust and respect among the individuals in authority promote cohesiveness and efficiency in the process of achieving reform. They also further the goal of implementing changes that are lasting because they are sound.

It is by virtue of their unique role in the formal structure, however, that state boards of education offer enduring leadership. State government is the entity vested with primary responsibility for education, and within that entity the state board is granted the authority to create and change school policies. At times, various segments of society mobilize to affect the schools, at other times students attend classes in a context of widespread apathy toward education. Regardless of these trends, state board members see themselves as steadfast advocates for children.

The 1980s are emerging as a decade of public concern for reform of the schools. There is a broad base of support for higher standards of academic achievement. This focus follows nearly twenty years of effort to achieve educational equity. Specifically, this has meant increasing the access to education for minority and handicapped students, and designing a curriculum that is more

Conclusion

relevant to individual needs and interests. More recently, the equity focus has yielded center stage to "back to basics" reforms which in turn are becoming the foundation for the schools' new "era of excellence." Numerous proposals are being advanced for increasing the quality of school personnel, curriculum, instructional time, and school organization. Governmental entities with responsibilities for education are captivated by many of these proposals and politicians at all levels are supporting new standards for quality.

In this charged climate, how do state boards of education cast their ongoing reform efforts in which equity and excellence share prominence? As in times of other national movements for educational change — the era of Sputnik and the Great Society, for example — state boards find themselves with important opportunities to assert their leadership in advocating policy initiatives. These initiatives, they find, are being met by political and popular support for funding from legislatures or for tax increases from the electorate.

A national trend obligates state boards of education to draw more heavily upon their practical and historical perspectives toward reform. Board members must analyze and weigh each new idea against their collective experience. They know that the political appeal of a given proposal does not guarantee its feasibility or its long-term desirability for the public schools. State boards are in a unique position to conduct the thoughtful debates that must follow upon ideas and precede policy implementation. They have the broad base of knowledge about the process of developing effective new policies. They understand the role played by legislators, administrators, teachers and teacher colleges, parents and the voting public in successful implementation. And finally, state boards are in a unique position to consider these issues in depth because they must make the policy decisions.

Policy debates within each state always occur in the context of its own traditions, needs and concerns. Yet state boards are pursuing more ecumenical, less provincial approaches to reform in the 1980s. Support for educational change is coming not only from other leaders within a single state. The movement is occurring across states, national goals are being proposed. At times like these, board members are encouraged to feel that at least some of their state's problems and solutions may not be so unique after all and that joint discussion and assessment of reform may be a useful policy tool.

Conclusion

As a result of this broad support for educational reform, the National Association of State Boards of Education is finding more opportunity than ever to provide support to state boards simultaneously. The NASBE ability to provide research- and practice-based information for use in policy deliberations is critical. Perhaps more crucial, however, is the mandate to facilitate interstate communication, which can be a powerful motivator for change in and of itself. The association stands ready to challenge its membership by turning a spotlight on the best reforms occurring in individual states, by helping states to consider how they may best adopt some of these reforms, and by assisting them in the complicated process of planning for change. State boards of education and their national association welcome what is both a new challenge and a new opportunity to serve the nation's youth.

Footnotes

- 1 Bailey, Stephen K., Richard T. Frost, Paul E. Marsh and Robert C. Wood, Schoolmen and Politics: A Study of State Aid to Education in the Northeast, Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1962, 4-5.
- 2 Murphy, Jerome T. (Ed.), State Leadership in Education: On Being a Chief State School Officer, Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, 1980, 2.
- 3 Ibid., 60.
- 4 Sroufe, Gerald E. An Examination of the Relationship Between Methods of Selection and the Characteristics and Self-Role Expectations of State School Board Members, Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago, Thesis No. T22165, September 1970, 84.
- 5 Ibid., 55.
- 6 Ibid., 90, 114.
- 7 Board members are appointed by the Governor in 18 additional states that fall under Models III, IV, and VII.
- 8 Sroufe, op. cit., 34-35.
- 9 Alabama, Colorado, Kansas, Louisiana (Model VII), Michigan, New Mexico, and Texas elect state board members through partisan ballot. The following states provide for non-partisan elections: Hawaii, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, Utah and the District of Columbia.

Footnotes

10. Sroufe, op. cit., 88.
11. Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). Educational Governance in the States. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1983, 32.
12. The chief is appointed by the governor in some states.
13. The following boards have staff independent of the state department of education: Idaho, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Montana, North Carolina, Tennessee, Washington, and the District of Columbia. Many additional states have a state board executive secretary who is a member of the state education agency staff, and a state board attorney who may work out of the state education agency or the state attorney general's office.
14. Colorado, Indiana, Kentucky, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Washington and Wisconsin.